

light exposure, the protein concentration of arrestin and GCAPs increases by about 30–50%. The up-regulation of these proteins in bright light conditions is expected to reactivate the photocurrent and thus to mediate a late phase of light adaptation. Functional *in vivo* electroretinographic tests show in fact that a partial recovery of the dark current occurs 1–2 hours after prolonged illumination with a steady light that initially causes a substantial suppression of the photoresponse. These observations demonstrate that a prolonged illumination results in the up-regulation of genes coding for proteins involved in the phototransduction signaling cascade, possibly underlying a novel component of light adaptation occurring 1–2 hours after the onset of a steady bright light.

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His75 in Proteorhodopsin, a Novel Component in Light-Driven Proton Translocation by Primary Pumps

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Proteorhodopsins (PRs), photoactive retinylidene membrane proteins ubiquitous in marine eubacteria, exhibit light-driven proton transport activity similar to that of the well-studied bacteriorhodopsin from halophilic archaea. However, unlike bacteriorhodopsin, PRs have a single highly conserved histidine located near the protein's photoactive site. Time-resolved FTIR difference spectroscopy combined with visible absorption spectroscopy, isotope labeling, and electrical measurements of light-induced charge movements reveal participation of His75 in the proton translocation mechanism of PR. Substitution of His75 with Ala or Glu perturbed the structure of the photoactive site and resulted in significantly shifted visible absorption spectra. In contrast, His75 substitution with a positively charged Arg did not shift the visible absorption spectrum of PR. The mutation to Arg also blocks the light-induced proton transfer from the Schiff base to its counterion Asp97 during the photocycle and the acid-induced protonation of Asp97 in the protein's dark state. Isotope labeling of histidine revealed that His75 undergoes deprotonation during the photocycle in the proton-pumping (high pH) form of PR, a reaction further supported by results from H75E. Finally, all His75 mutations greatly affect charge movements within the PR and shift its pH dependence to acidic values. A model of the proteorhodopsin proton transport process is proposed whereby (i) in the dark state His75 is positively charged (protonated) over a wide pH range and interacts directly with the Schiff base counterion Asp97; and (ii) photoisomerization-induced transfer of the Schiff base proton to the Asp97 counterion disrupts its interaction with His75 and triggers a histidine deprotonation.

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Slow quinone diffusion limits the photosynthetic rate in *Phaeospirillum molischianum*

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We have investigated the organization of the photosynthetic apparatus in *Phaeospirillum molischianum* using AFM, fractionation, functional kinetic measurements and modeling. The various proteins of the apparatus do not co-localize and specific membrane domains appear to be involved in light-collection and quinone reduction, while other regions are specialized in quinol oxidation or ATP synthesis. The overall turnover time of cyclic electron transfer is about 25 msec *in vivo*, and can be slowed to over 100 msec under oxidizing conditions. We show that the photosynthetic rate in this organism appears to be limited by a very slow quinone diffusion between the reaction center and cytochrome bc1 complex, a process that takes about 250 msec. This particularly slow diffusion appears to be compensated in part by the size of the quinone pool. In this context the details of the organization of the photosynthetic apparatus would seem critical to conserving a competitive bioenergetic system. It is possible that quinone excluding antennae domains are important for maintaining photosynthetic competence by channeling quinones between domains. Our measurements highlight that the functional organization of the photosynthetic apparatus varies greatly between organisms, and that we observe in *Phaeospirillum molischianum* is very different from that observed in *Rhodospirillum rubrum*.

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Characteristics of the Dark-Stable Multiline EPR Signal of Ca²⁺-Depleted Photosystem II

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Photosystem II (PSII), which produces molecular oxygen using energy from light absorption, requires Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻ ions as inorganic cofactors. PSII shows two electron paramagnetic resonance signals that have been associated with the depletion or disruption of Ca²⁺ at the catalytic Mn₄Ca cluster: a dark-stable multiline signal from an S₂ state that decays very slowly, and a broad metalloradical signal from an S₂Y_Z state that is unable to proceed to higher oxidation states. The conditions for their formation were explored to help clarify how they are correlated. The dark-stable multiline signal was found to form in PSII prepared at pH 5.5 using itaconic acid buffer, a relative of citrate. The signal was very similar to the previously reported signal that is observed after EDTA treatment of PSII lacking the PsbP and PsbQ subunits. Both of these treatments, which employ Ca²⁺ chelators, also resulted in formation of the S₂Y_Z signal when PSII was illuminated in the presence of an electron acceptor. Treatment of intact PSII with fluoride, which is a competitor of Cl⁻ activation, resulted in formation of the S₂Y_Z signal, but not the dark-stable multiline signal. Fluoride may also interfere with Ca²⁺ function as a result of the high stability of the CaF₂ complex. These findings are examined in relation to the requirements of PSII for Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻. (Supported by UNCG Office of Research).

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Photosystem II Supercomplexes Of Higher Plants: Isolation And Determination Of The Structural And Functional Organization

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Photosystem II is a supercomplex composed of 27–28 different subunits and it represents the most important machinery of the plants photosynthetic apparatus, having the ability to split water into oxygen, protons and electrons. In the last few years the structures of most of the photosynthetic complexes have been resolved, allowing to organize in a “visual framework” the large body of information obtained by genetics, biochemical and spectroscopic methods about the function and organization of the complexes. Only the structure of PSII-LHCII from higher plants is still lacking due to the impossibility to obtain a homogeneous and stable preparation of the supercomplex, which has also prevented functional and spectroscopic studies.

In this work homogeneous and stable Photosystem II supercomplexes with different antenna size were isolated. A full gallery of complexes, from the core to the largest C2S2M2, was characterized by electron microscopy and biochemical and spectroscopic methods, allowing to relate for the first time the supramolecular organization to the protein and pigment content and the energy transfer processes. A new complex containing a monomeric core, a trimeric LHCII (S) and a monomeric CP26 was isolated, showing that the antenna proteins can bind to the monomeric core in contrast to the current belief. The comparison of the supercomplexes obtained from WT plants and knock out mutants of several Lhcb proteins allowed determining the hierarchy of the assembly and to suggest a role for the individual subunits. The data also provides information about the organization of the oxygen evolving complex. For the first time it was possible to study the energy transfer process in the supercomplexes with the use of picosecond fluorescence spectroscopy.

The functional implication of these results on photoinhibition, state transition and energy transfer are discussed.

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Type I reaction center from the green sulfur bacterium *Chlorobium tepidum*: is Chl *a* a primary electron acceptor?

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The green sulfur bacterium *Chlorobium tepidum* has one of the simplest type I reaction center (RC) complexes. While its structure is still unknown, biochemical and protein sequence analyses suggest that it is similar to photosystem I (PS I), with two BChl *a* forming a special pair P840, four Chl *a* serving as pairs of accessory and primary electron acceptor (A₀) pigments and 14 BChl *a* constituting as an immediate RC antenna. This is a dramatic simplification compared to PS I RC, where 90 Chl *a* antenna pigments serve as antenna and 6 additional Chl *a* molecules function as electron transfer cofactors. The resulting spectral congestion has prevented direct visualization of ultrafast electron transfer processes within PS I RC and even the sequence of primary electron transfer processes in PS I is still under debate. The suggested presence of two types of pigments in RC from *Chlorobium tepidum* removes spectral congestion and opens a way to directly visualize electron transfer steps in type I RC using ultrafast spectroscopy, since the Chl *a* and BChl *a* pigments absorb at ~670 nm and ~800 nm, respectively. To confirm the proposed functional role of Chl *a* as